1:Gallin E-4,5 (1957-1958) 1966
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241 426 [612] [602] the closest relationship. Thus, a villager might have a relationship of frequent mutual borrowing with family members, neighbors, or friends. Sometimes a villager borrows a farm implement from a *ch'in ch'i* (a matrilateral or affinal relative), and in that case no money is paid nor a feeling of obligation incurred. But usually, unless a *ch'in ch'i* lives nearby, it is not likely that a large piece of equipment can be borrowed.

241 426 571 [602] However, the decision to borrow a tool from another depends upon how good the *kan-ch'ing*[2] is between the two people. This is true even for *ch'in tsu* relatives—such as patrilateral parallel cousins—whose *kan-ch'ing* may not necessarily be very good. If the *kan-ch'ing* between two people is not good and one lends the other a tool, then the borrower will feel an obligation toward the lender and worry about it and will later send a gift of something to the lender in order to cancel the obligation. Until this is done, the borrower feels uncomfortable. [427] Therefore, rather than become involved in an uncomfortable situation, a villager often prefers to pay the NT $20 rent for a threshing machine to someone with whom his *kan-ch'ing* is not necessarily good. The payment makes it a simple commercial transaction, and there is no obligation.

241 426 427 Many villagers do not like to borrow an implement which seems to be in bad condition, since if it breaks down the borrower will be expected to repair it. Therefore, to avoid possible trouble, many villagers prefer to rent the implement so that they have no such responsibility.

241 426 571 But no matter whom the villager approaches for the loan of a tool, it is quite unusual to get an outright refusal. If the owner of the implement does not wish to lend it at all, or at least not to that particular person—perhaps because he has a reputation for not returning things promptly—he will offer some excuse. But since the villagers generally know quite well who is likely to be willing to lend them things, they limit their requests accordingly, and embarrassing situations do not often arise.

242 427 Certain implements, such as insecticide sprayers, which few farmers own, can be rented at a nominal charge from the local Farmers' Association. The government and the Farmers' Association are fostering the use of insecticides and thus make sprayers available.

241 426 404 [571] Most really expensive farm implements are owned jointly by several villagers. The families which join together to buy a threshing machine, winnower, stone rice grinder, insecticide sprayer, or water wheel do so for various reasons. Entering into a joint-purchase arrangement, however, is dependent upon the existence of good *kan-ch'ing* between them. Some households which are related, such as brothers or even patrilateral parallel cousins, may have inherited a threshing machine

1:Gallin E-4,5 (1957-1958) 1966
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or winnower jointly from their fathers or have recently purchased the item together. There are neighboring households which, for the sake of convenience, purchase some implement which none of the participants could or would have purchased independently. Finally, there are men in the village who are friends and join together to buy an expensive implement like an insecticide sprayer which they can all take turns using. Villagers who are friends usually influence one another. For example, several good friends in the village all grow the same vegetables for market sale. Village men who are good friends and share economic interests have many economic and social ties between them.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Most of the village families raise some livestock. They may include pigs, fowl, some rabbits and goats, and a few water buffalo for work purposes. (See Table 12.) Livestock is generally not considered

TABLE 12

SURVEY OF NUMBER OF LIVESTOCK OWNED BY 87 HSIN HSING VILLAGE FARM FAMILIES, AUGUST, 1958

Livestock	Number
Water buffalo	17
Pigs	241
Chickens	561
Ducks	372
Geese	151
Rabbits	52
Goats	11

an important source of household cash income. Even the many pigs raised in the village (241 in August, 1958) are not considered a source of real income, since the villagers feel that raising pigs is more "like putting money in the bank." The reasoning behind this commonly made statement is that the price the butcher pays just about covers the money and time it costs to raise the pigs. Thus, when a farmer raises pigs he knows that as soon as the animals are sold he will have a sum of money at his disposal; it is, therefore, a sort of enforced saving. Usually the money has long since been earmarked for some special project—to build an extension to the family's house, to pay the expenses of an engagement or marriage, or to pay off a loan. However, if there is an impending marriage in the family, it is usual to slaughter one or more pigs for use in the marriage feast. Thus, when a village woman was asked when her twenty-two-year-old son would be married,

1:Gallin E-4,5 (1957-1958) 1966
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she answered, "when the pigs are big enough." In explanation she continued, "Do you think that a poor family like ours could afford to *buy* two pigs in order to give our son a proper wedding?"

Almost every family in the village raises at least a few pigs. They are of three types: the native Taiwanese, the Berkshire, or a crossbreed of the two. These pigs are kept in sties which are typically constructed with mud floors, bamboo sidewalls and straw roofs; they are either attached directly to the side of the house or situated several yards away. Some rather recently constructed sties in the village, however, are more modern; they are specially designed with cement or brick floors and walls and cement tile roofs. The local Pu Yen Hsiang Farmers' Association usually subsidizes the construction of a few such sties in each village every year, paying about one-quarter of the total cost of construction.

For the most part, the care and feeding of pigs is the responsibility of the village women and older children. Much time is spent preparing pig food. This consists of sweet potatoes and certain green vegetables grown especially by the farmer for his pigs and other livestock. This is all cooked in a starchy water called "rice soup," which is the water in which the family's rice is washed before it is cooked. According to the Farmers' Association and government agricultural agencies, it is not necessary to cook pig food, but their word has not been very effective in the village. Most villagers, despite the great amount of time it takes, still continue to follow the traditional way of preparation in the belief that pigs will not grow fat on raw sweet potatoes.

Every few days the pig sty is cleaned out. This is usually done for the important purpose of collecting the excrement and the rice straw, which partially covers the floor, for use as fertilizer. Compost is made from the dung and used for various crops. Uncovered compost heaps are usually found alongside the pig houses, and it is not unusual for some garbage to be added to the heap. Children as well as fowl can often be seen climbing on the open compost heap.

When a pig becomes ill it is common to call a local veterinarian. Sometimes the farmer himself will give the sick pig a shot of the penicillin which can now be readily purchased in Lukang.

Possibly as a result of a lack of selective breeding, a somewhat inadequate diet and inadequate use of antibiotics, unsanitary living conditions and the climate, pigs in Hsin Hsing usually take from nine to fifteen months to reach full size, a good deal longer than similar breeds take in America. When a pig does reach full growth, a tax must be paid by the farmer to the government at the Public Office before it is slaughtered. The tax must be paid whether the farmer is selling the pig or using it for his own purposes. Pigs are usually sold to a butcher from a village in the area or from Lukang.

1:Gallin E-4,5 (1957-1958) 1966
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the basis of the profits of the Farmers' Association, dividends in the form of towels, soap, or tea sets are regularly given to members.

The members of each village unit of the Farmers' Association elect a "small unit head" who is the Farmers' Association's agent in the village. It is his job to distribute association literature and to notify the members of meetings and classes. It is also his job to record the amount of land for which each farmer wishes to obtain fertilizer from the Food Bureau through the auspices of the Farmers' Association in exchange for rice. Although the unit head used to receive NT $50 a month to cover his expenses, in 1958 the arrangement was changed so that now he receives only the actual office supplies necessary for his job. In each village in Pu Yen Hsiang, the unit head is given a radio by the Farmers' Association for his use as long as he holds the position. He also regularly receives a newspaper, which is an organ of the provincial government, and *Harvest Magazine*.

The members in each village elect one representative for every fifty members to the association's governing body. These representatives in turn elect a supervisor, who then appoints the General Secretary who actually runs the *hsiang* Farmers' Association. The General Secretary is the highest paid employee of the organization and is in charge of the many other paid employees. The main duty of the representatives is to attend the annual meeting of representatives to vote on the yearly program and budget which has been worked out by the General Secretary and his staff.

Today, most of the villagers and employees of the Pu Yen Hsiang Farmers' Association feel that the local units are relatively independent. However, there are Farmers' Associations on the *hsien* and provincial level which are supposed to "teach" and to lead the operation of the local organizations. The local units in turn pay fees to the higher level units. In addition, there is a section in both the *hsien* and provincial government's agricultural departments which deals with farmers' organizations and supervises the operations of the Farmers' Associations. Thus, there is control of the operations of the local Farmers' Associations by these three higher levels. The monthly program, budget, and proposed special programs of the local associations are first discussed in local committee, and then the proposals and budget are sent to the Hsien Farmers' Association for suggestions and to the government agency for approval, changes, or rejection.

Both farmers and staff members of the association generally seem to agree that such guidance and supervision by upper levels of the government is a good thing. It is felt that the supervision of the *hsien* government is grounded in the law and assures the farmer that the programs and large amounts of money handled by the Farmers' Association will be properly administered. However, since the organiza-

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However, since the organization, as the official agent in the rural area for the provincial Food Bureau, must perform a number of unpleasant tasks such as the collection of rice and loans, this leads to some distrust of the Farmers' Association by the farmer.

The Farmers' Association has three basic functions. The first, and perhaps the most important, of its functions is its extension services. Many of these are performed with the financial and advisory cooperation of the JCRR. The second function is moneylending, which is of two kinds: loans to farmers by the association itself and loans to farmers by the provincial Food Bureau under the management of the association. The third function is performing, for a fee, some of the work of the provincial Food Bureau. The association sells fertilizer to the farmer and collects (handles and/or stores) rice from the farmer to pay for it. It collects rice for the land tax, for the required rice sale to the government, and for the semiannual payments in kind on land purchased from the government under the Land Reform Program.

Extension Services

The extension services offered by local Farmers' Associations vary a great deal from district to district. Because of the extension services it offers, the association in Pu Yen Hsiang is known to be one of the very best on the island. These services include educational instruction, sponsoring of 4-H Clubs, provision of rental farm implements, providing cash subsidies and loans to members to encourage farm improvements and modernization, and sale to members of such items as seed, bean cake, and bicycles below the market price.

The forms of instruction sponsored by the Pu Yen Hsiang Farmers' Association have been varied and apparently successful. Regular sewing classes are held for the daughters of members, and since the classes are free, many village families wish to take advantage of the opportunity. However, the facilities are so limited that when classes are held, each village may send only a small quota based on the number of association members in the village. In Hsin Hsing large numbers of girls wish to attend the classes, and it is the responsibility of the formal village leaders—the mayor, the village representative, and the village Farmers' Association unit head—to select the students. However, usually the village leaders wish to avoid any possible conflict or criticism over their choices, and, although some girls may meet the qualifications set up by the association better than others, straws are drawn to determine which girls will attend. The method all too often sends less qualified girls to the classes, and these often drop out before the course is over. Several Hsin Hsing villagers have complained of the wastefulness of this method of choice, and claim that the village leaders are refusing to assume their full responsibility.

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474 654 241 804 Other classes are held for training boys in agricultural techniques. There are also occasional adult classes on the proper use and application of fertilizer and planting techniques for some crops. The experts on various subjects who are brought in to speak to these classes are sometimes too technical for their audience, are not trained in practical application, and are strangers who know little of the immediate agricultural problems of the area. When this happens, the farmers tend to lose respect for and interest in such sessions. The Farmers' Association also sends trained women into the villages to teach women and girls how to prepare powdered milk for children and introduces new farm tools, new types of seeds and crops, fertilizer, and insecticides to the local area.

241 575 474 804 [797] Under the auspices of the Farmers' Association the 4-H movement has been introduced in some villages in Pu Yen Hsiang. The movement is relatively new in Taiwan, having been introduced with the help of JCRR in the early 1950's. The movement has been in existence in Pu Yen Hsiang only during the past few years; so far it has met with only moderate success. The 4-H groups are for boys and girls between the ages of fourteen and twenty-two. The program attempts to teach them the proper care of fields and livestock, home economics, and general record-keeping for income and expenses. Another purpose, set forth when the goals of 4-H are presented to the villagers, is to keep the young people busy and out of trouble.

There is no 4-H group in Hsin Hsing village since there is no one qualified and willing to lead the program. Such a position demands an educated man who has free time and a knowledge and an interest in modern farm techniques. The person best suited to lead the program [554] in Hsin Hsing is a relatively poor man who does not have enough free time and who is not particularly respected by many villagers because of his poor financial condition. "If a poor man should tell people something sensible about what to do, no one would pay any attention. After all, no one wants to listen to the words of a poor man. But let the poor man suddenly become famous and rich, and people will listen to his most ridiculous ideas."

474 654 In addition to these many educational programs, the Farmers' Association also often subsidizes a farmer who is willing to attempt something new, such as buying an insecticide sprayer, building a new type of pig sty, or cementing a courtyard in front of his home for the drying of rice or vegetables. The association can give a partial subsidy to only a few farmers in the many villages each year. Usually, villages in which there are farmers interested in using the subsidy draw lots. However, the subsidies are so small that a great deal of money must be added to finance the building of a pig sty or a cement drying area, so only a few villages take part. Once the village receives the subsidy, there is likely

1:Gallin E-4,5 (1957-1958) 1966
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to be only one, or possibly two, farmers with enough extra cash to take advantage of it. A cement drying area built with the help of this public money quickly becomes a semipublic area. The actual owner has first claim on its use, but if he is not using it, any other villager may do so without asking his permission. On the other hand, a drying area which is not cemented is definitely considered private property, and before a villager may use it he must gain the permission of the owner.

Moneylending (Rural Credit)

A major problem which still confronts the Taiwanese farmer, just as it did the mainland farmers under the Nationalists, is the difficulty in obtaining low-interest loans. The little progress made thus far in easing this problem in the Hsin Hsing area has been through the efforts of the local Farmers' Association. The association in Pu Yen has used its own available funds, together with the financial and organizational help of JCRR, to offer low-interest loans to small farmers. Other loans which have been made available by the provincial Food Bureau and the Land Bank have been of little help in easing the credit situation of the small farmer, since such loans require too much security or else are mainly for business purposes. The result is that most farmers still resort to high-interest private moneylenders or to moneylending clubs.

The Farmers' Association, under the Shih Fan Tai K'uan, "Model Money Lending" system, makes cash loans which are to be repaid in cash, to small farmers. The rules for the granting of these loans are made by each district Farmers' Association, but they must be approved by JCRR. The loans can be made only to regular members of the Farmers' Association, to help them purchase farm implements necessary to increase their production. The maximum loan made by the Pu Yen Farmers' Association in 1958 was NT $5,000. This was lent for a maximum period of two years, and payments on the loan were due every six months. The actual time permitted for repayment of the loan depends upon the amount of money borrowed. The interest rate charged by the Farmers' Association is 1.5 percent per month.

The only security demanded of the borrower is the guarantee of two other members of the Farmers' Association. A committee of the association decides if the borrower is a good risk by examining the amount of land he operates (owned and rented). According to the Extension Head of the Farmers' Association, the most important consideration is that the man can be trusted and also that he have good guarantors. Thus, if his reasons for wanting the loan are accepted, even a man who owns only a small piece of land may be able to borrow the maximum amount of money for the full two-year term. At the Pu Yen association

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probably more than one-half of these loans are made to tenant farmers and to people who are both landowners and tenants. However, the funds available for such loans are limited, and can therefore play only a small part in alleviating the rural credit situation.

In 1958 there were also two types of loan systems sponsored by the provincial Food Bureau and administered by the Pu Yen Farmers' Association. One system, called Sheng Ch'an Tai K'uan, "Money Lending for Production," makes available through loans small amounts of cash directly proportional to the amount of land the borrower operates (owns or rents). For each *chia* of land he operates a farmer can borrow NT $600. Farmers who operate small amounts of land, like the majority of Hsin Hsing farmers, therefore do not like to borrow money under this plan since the amounts are too small and involve too much red tape. An additional, and perhaps greater, disadvantage of this system is that the money borrowed, plus the interest, must be paid back in rice rather than in cash. The rice to be repaid is not calculated at the market price but at the rather lower official price. Consequently, the farmer must pay back much more rice than he could have bought with the money he borrowed plus the interest.

The other Food Bureau loan plan is to aid poor people who do not have enough rice to eat. These people may borrow brown husked rice (unpolished) at a low interest rate. This rice loan must then be repaid in new unhusked rice. According to an employee of the Farmers' Association, the brown husked rice loaned out by the Food Bureau under the administration of the Farmers' Association is rice stored in the association warehouses which the Food Bureau wishes to get rid of before it spoils. The only people who are eligible for such a loan are poor people who grow rice.

The government Land Bank also offers loans, but these are usually made to large landholders who want the money to engage in business, offering their land as security. Thus, in times of financial need most small farmers must still resort to private moneylenders who require little security but charge interest rates of about 3.6 percent per month. Such loans are frequently for short terms because the interest rate is so very high. The moneylenders are usually landlords or former landlords and businessmen who have cash on hand and engage in such business as an investment. However, there are also small farmers who happen to have some cash on hand and lend it for a short time at the same high interest rates. These men will also sometimes lend small sums of money for a short time without interest to someone with whom they are intimate—some *ch'in tzu* or *ch'in ch'i*, or even some very close friends who are not related to them in any way.

Another common means of borrowing money in the Hsin Hsing area, and in urban centers, is through a moneylending club. These

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These clubs, which are very popular in Hsin Hsing, are similar to the clubs formerly found in many parts of mainland China (Fei, 1939:267–274) and in Japan (Embree, 1939:138–147). Loan clubs, usually with ten to fifteen members, are organized by a man or woman who is considered reliable and trustworthy and who needs a large sum of money for some special purpose such as building a new house, buying some land, or paying for engagement gifts or dowry. The members, enlisted by the organizer, are usually his relatives, friends, or neighbors or sometimes even acquaintances of any of the others. The members are generally people who are interested in being of help to the organizer in his financial need, but there are others who participate only because they hope to make a profit.

The operation of such a moneylending club is quite complex. By means of such a system a person in financial need is often able to obtain an interest-free loan which is to be paid off over a fairly long time—usually more than a year—in equal monthly installments.[8] If the amount involved is very large, such a club may use rice instead of money for the initial loan and for all payments. Under this system, all the payments are made twice a year, that is, after each rice harvest, over a period of years. For the most part, only rice growers participate in this latter transaction.

Generally speaking, then, the problem of farm credit has not yet been solved in the Hsin Hsing village area. A very large proportion of small farmers in financial need must still borrow money under the traditional high-interest systems. The problems of poor credit facilities, along with other financial burdens of the land, seem to be a factor in the increase in the number of families which are forced to find ways of supplementing farm income.

Agent for the Provincial Government's Food Bureau

It is only through the increased use of fertilizer that it is possible for the Taiwanese farmer to cultivate the land so much more intensively than before. In the middle and late 1930's Japanese chemical fertilizer and bean cake imported from Manchuria was used in Taiwan. Then, as now, the fertilizer was distributed for the government by the local Farmers' Associations. Under the Japanese, however, the villagers report, the system of distribution and payment for the fertilizer was quite different. Then, the farmer could easily obtain as much fertilizer and bean cake as he needed and desired so long as it was available. The cost of the fertilizer could be paid in cash (as could the land tax) after the sale of the rice harvest to a merchant. Now, payment for the fertilizer is only made in rice, partly before and partly after the harvest. Today, the government, operating through the provincial government's Food Bureau, has a monopoly on the importa-

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tion of the chemicals from Japan which make up the greater part of all the artificial fertilizer used in Taiwan. Only a relatively small amount of chemical fertilizer is manufactured in Taiwan itself and sold on the open market.

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Although the provincial government's Food Bureau still distributes the imported fertilizer through the local Farmers' Associations, the farmer today cannot purchase the kinds and amounts of fertilizer he wants. Instead, the fertilizer is only available to farmers who agree to grow crops specified by the Food Bureau. In 1958, chemical fertilizer could be obtained by the farmer only if he grew rice or jute as his first two crops and wheat or vegetables as his third crop. Payment for fertilizer to be used on rice was made in rice at the rate of one *chin* of rice for one *chin* of fertilizer. Only the fertilizer for jute, wheat, or vegetables could be bought for cash. The amount of fertilizer the farmer was allowed to purchase was determined by the size of area to be planted.

The fertilizer to be used for each crop is paid for in two installments: 40 percent at about the time of delivery and the remaining 60 percent after the harvest. Thus, in February or March, for example, the farmer must pay, in rice, 40 percent of the cost of the fertilizer used for the first rice crop. Then, sometime between the end of June and the beginning of August, he must pay the 60 percent still due for the first crop plus 40 percent of the cost of the fertilizer used for the second rice crop. The farmer must deliver the rice to the Farmers' Association. This sort of exchange system creates a number of problems for the farmer and is responsible for a good deal of his bitterness towards the government.

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As a direct result of the government's monopoly, most of the better fertilizers tend to be cheaper when purchased at the Farmers' Association than they would be at the shops of local merchants which have only limited amounts for sale. (The merchants acquire the more desirable imported Japanese fertilizer through devious means which will be discussed later.) Thus the farmer prefers to buy his fertilizer through the Farmers' Association at the favorable price. However, many farmers in the Hsin Hsing area now grow vegetables or some other crop instead of rice, especially as the second crop, and the association does not allocate fertilizer for such purposes. These farmers, of course, still need fertilizer, and therefore many declare to the Farmers' Association that they will plant so much acreage in rice when they have no such intention. As a result, when payment for the fertilizer thus obtained is due, these farmers must buy rice on the local market or from a villager with a surplus in order to meet their obligation.

Even the villager who does grow the rice he has declared to the

1:Gallin E-4,5 (1957-1958) 1966
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Farmers' Association has problems. The farmer who grows rice as his second crop must save some of his rice from the November harvest in order to make the 40 percent payment for the fertilizer for the first rice crop in February or March. If this rice is stored it is in constant danger from rodents, but if the farmer eats or sells his rice, he must then buy rice in the spring at the higher off-season price, in order to make the 40 percent payment for the fertilizer needed in February or March.

A larger problem concerns the association's role in collecting the farmers' rice for the Food Bureau. (This same problem arises when the farmer makes payment in rice after the harvest for land tax, land reform land, and the enforced rice sale to the government. This will be discussed later.) In order to deliver his rice to the Farmers' Association almost three miles from Hsin Hsing, the farmer must either use an oxcart or make several trips by bicycle. To save time and energy, he may hire an oxcart if he does not own one. The rice will not be accepted by the Farmers' Association (acting for the Food Bureau) if it is not dry enough. If this happens, the farmer must take his rice home again and dry it further.

Today, some people in the area who own oxcarts and who have enough capital to maintain large stores of dry rice make it a business to take over the full responsibility of delivering the farmers' rice to the Farmers' Association in acceptable condition. These people obtain the names of farmers and the amount of rice they owe to the government from the Farmers' Association. They then pick up the rice of the willing farmer and give him a guarantee, in the form of a receipt, specifying that the businessman agrees to take over the farmer's responsibility for the rice payment. If the farmer's rice is not dry enough, the agent can then use his own rice stores to make payment. The charge to the farmer for this service is 5 percent in kind of the rice delivered. Many farmers use this service in order to relieve their anxiety over the possible refusal of their rice and also to eliminate the problem of finding a means of delivery.

Still other problems face the farmer under the government's system of fertilizer distribution. When the farmer acquires his fertilizer through the Farmers' Association, he must take the kinds and amounts of fertilizer being sold, regardless of what he would like or thinks he needs. And, in order to buy the ammonium sulphate fertilizer which is necessary for the rice crops, the Hsin Hsing area farmer must also buy a good deal of nitrogen calcium (known as "black fertilizer") which is used mainly for sugarcane and sweet potatoes. The farmers in southern Taiwan, who grow more sugarcane, must take the ammonium sulphate as well as the nitrogen calcium fertilizer. The result is that many farmers in each area sell the fertilizer they do not need to

1:Gallin E-4,5 (1957-1958) 1966
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the farmer who owns paddy land to grow rice. If the farmer substitutes vegetables or some other cash crop, he must nevertheless pay his land tax in rice and sell rice to the government at the official price as well. Therefore, in order to have the rice to sell to the government at the official price, the farmer who does not grow rice is forced to buy it on the market at a much higher price than he will get from the government.

IRRIGATION: ANOTHER EXTERNAL FORCE

The basic economy of the Hsin Hsing area is directly dependent upon the irrigation system. If the land did not receive water through this system, the present sizable agricultural production would not be possible and certainly could not support the large population in the area. The yearly rains usually come in one short season in late May, June, and July, and would be of little value if the water were not stored and channeled to the land at the proper time through elaborate irrigation works. The irrigation water is so important that it frequently causes social conflict between individuals and even between whole villages.

The Hsin Hsing area, and much of Taiwan, is served by two different types of irrigation systems. By far the most important is the public system, which is organized and operated by the Water Conservation Bureau through the Water Conservation Association. Under their administration water is distributed to the major portion of the land in the area. The second system is private and is administered by privately organized cooperative water-pumping associations. The pumping stations of these associations have recently extended the distribution of water to many formerly nonirrigated fields. The cooperatives build their own pumping stations, which draw water from rivers such as the drainage river behind Hsin Hsing, and then use private, and sometimes public, irrigation ditches to transport the water to the fields of its members. (See map 3, showing Pu Yen Hsiang villages and irrigation system.)

The Public Irrigation System

The public irrigation system is organized and operated under the direction of the government. The agency in control, the Water Conservation Bureau, is subordinate to the provincial government's Department of Civil Administration and under the official guidance of the Water Conservation Bureau is the Water Conservation Association, which is made up of a membership of the many farmers who use irrigation water. Theoretically, this association operates and controls the irrigation system, but actually, it is under the authority and direc-

[Text continues on p. 81.]

1:Gallin E-4,5 (1957-1958) 1966
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police did intervene, but because of red tape the case dragged on, and had still not been settled by the time my field research was concluded in September, 1958.

Private and Cooperative Pumping Station Associations

In the Hsin Hsing area there is still much dry land to which the public irrigation system has not yet been extended. In the last six to seven years much of this dry land has been transformed into more productive wet land with the building of privately operated pumping stations. Sometimes such pumping stations are very small and are built by one or two people as an investment. However, they are more often built as cooperative ventures and use large pumps to irrigate relatively large areas.

A small private pumping station was built by a Hsin Hsing villager to irrigate the land immediately behind the village and the land which lies between Hsin Hsing and the neighboring village of Ta Yu. It irrigates about eight *chia* of land, most of which is owned and cultivated by Hsin Hsing villagers, although about one *chia* of land is operated by people from Ta Yu village. When the owner found that the operation of the pumps was not profitable, he turned the station into a cooperative by selling shares to most of the farmers who had previously paid him for the water they used. In 1958 there were sixteen shares in the cooperative, each valued at about NT $1,200. This was calculated on the current price of rice; the capital of the cooperative is maintained in rice. This cooperative also sells water to non-shareholders with small fields in the area. The price for irrigating 0.1 *chia* of land per crop is one hundred *chin* of rice. Farmers who have very small portions of land in the area do not usually join the cooperative, preferring to buy the water when they need it.

Since it is a small one, this cooperative has no elected officers. One Hsin Hsing villager who is also a shareholder is hired by the cooperative to tend the pumps and see to the distribution of water to the members and purchasers. If a minor repair or decision must be made, this caretaker may take it upon himself to resolve it. However, if any major decision or large repair must be made, then a meeting of the shareholders is called, and the decision is made by general agreement.

A large cooperative pumping station operates in Ta Yu village and irrigates almost forty *chia* of land. The membership is large and the organization formal. Officers are elected and decisions are made at meetings by a vote of the membership. Two landlords who own large portions of the land irrigated by this cooperative are the elected leaders and exert considerable influence on all decisions which are made. It is to the advantage of the cooperative to have such wealthy men as their leaders, since they know many public officials in the Water Con-

1:Gallin E-4,5 (1957-1958) 1966
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servation Bureau and Association and can therefore exert a great deal of influence if any problems should arise in dealing with these agencies.

The farmers who receive water from private irrigation systems must also be members of the area Water Conservation Association, and therefore pay for the use of the water which is considered public. Water is usually distributed among members of the pumping station cooperatives on the basis of rotation, the order of which is determined by drawing lots. The land of some farmers served by the pumping station was formerly nonirrigated, so these men had to dig their own irrigation ditches. However, some members of the cooperative also cultivate paddy land which is in the water tail area of the public irrigation system. In these cases, when the farmers joined the cooperative, the public irrigation ditches were frequently used to carry the privately pumped water to their land, usually at times when there was no public irrigation water coming through the ditch. The use of these public irrigation ditches for the water pumped by the cooperative is sometimes responsible for disputes and even violence, as will be seen in the case of a Hsin Hsing farmer who was not a member of the large cooperative. Li Fan took water for his field from the public ditch. Two members of the cooperative accused him of stealing the cooperative's water, claiming that there was little public water coming through at the time, and beat him severely. This incident caused controversy and antagonism between Hsin Hsing and Ta Yu, the village in which most of the members of the cooperative lived. When mediation yielded no solution to the conflict, the villagers finally resorted to the courts. (This case is described in detail in Chapter 6.)

The building of these pumping station cooperatives has greatly increased agricultural production for the lands they serve. Much of the land they irrigate was formerly dry land producing only such crops as sweet potatoes, special broom grasses, cucumbers, and peanuts. Today, these same lands are good rice producers. In addition, the lands benefiting from the private irrigation systems can usually receive water earlier than the surrounding water tail land which gets water from the public irrigation system. Consequently, while the water tail land frequently receives too little water too late, the land privately irrigated by the pumping stations usually receives ample water much earlier. This means that farmers benefiting from the private irrigation systems rarely have any difficulty in planting and harvesting according to the dates specified by the agricultural calendar.

Thus, the expansion of the irrigation network, both public and private, has required villagers to involve themselves with people and government in places where they previously had few, if any, relations. Irrigation networks cross village and even area boundaries. Although

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villagers in premodern Taiwan also had relationships with other villages and areas, it is evident that the recent expansion of agriculture has made the increase in their outside relations both possible and necessary. During a period of drought while I was in the village, I found the villagers both aware and concerned with whether the provincial government would hold the large mountain water resources back in order to generate electric power or would release the water earlier to be used for irrigation.

The effect that irrigation has had on the villagers' outside concerns is no different from the effect on their lives of the recently expanded operations of the Farmers' Association through its facilities and, especially, its improved extension services.

But perhaps one of the most striking changes in the village has been in land utilization—the important switch to vegetable growing, a cash crop, which necessitates a development of interest in marketing. This change in land utilization is very closely related to land tenure problems such as land scarcity and the recent important development of out-migration of villagers to the city. These will be discussed in the next chapter.

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Thus, by reason of their *tsu* or other patrilineal relationships and their physical proximity, such groups within the village tend more easily to become cooperating units in many phases of their daily lives. In addition to the small amount of corporate land which one of the village *tsu* groups owns, some *tsu* (and, more frequently, patrilineal relatives who have recently divided into separate households) may continue to share certain expensive farm implements or may even buy them cooperatively. Such implements will usually be rented out to a nonrelated villager, but they will be lent out without charge to a *tsu* or other patrilineal relative as long as there is no bad feeling between the two related families. Therefore, a member of one of the two Shih families which is not affiliated with the other two Shih *tsu* and which lives in a separate part of the village—but which recognizes a shared mainland ancestor with one of the Shih *tsu*—receives the loan of the latter's threshing machine without charge. Although they do not recognize an actual *tsu* relationship with him, they do feel he is more than simply an ordinary *ch'in t'ang*, and thus they lend him things which others would normally pay to use.

Patrilineally related families are also more frequently willing to lend each other small amounts of money without any interest charge, and it is very common to find such families, again especially those which have recently divided, cooperating in odd chores which demand more labor than any individual economic family may have available. As mentioned in Chapter 3, they frequently exchange labor at harvest-time—possibly without counting a day for a day. In one case, a joint family which had a married son in the army divided itself economically, thus leaving the soldier son's wife and child on their own. This division was initiated by the wife, who did not get along with the family and thought she could manage better alone. After the division, however, she very soon found herself unable to manage, and it was necessary for her husband's father and brothers and *ch'in tsu* in the village to help her. The villagers were critical of her; they felt that before division, as one family, the others had to help her as a matter of course. But once the bond was broken, she had to seek their help and in so doing incurred an obligation to them and lost some face.

Weddings bring forth the most obvious form of cooperation between patrilineal relatives. There are great festivities on such occasions, and the family of the bride or groom entertains many people, especially *ch'in ch'i* and friends from outside the village, at a banquet. At such times the family needs a great deal of extra help in serving the food to the many guests and in acting as hosts. Patrilineal relatives play an important part on these occasions, since they do not need to be formally entertained as do *ch'in ch'i* and friends from outside the village with whom there is a more formal relationship.

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618 423 not hold in common any significant amount of corporate land which could function as a source of unity by necessitating organization to administer such lands. Such *tsu* organization might easily tend to extend to other phases of *tsu* relationships and so possibly act as an additional unifying factor. On the other hand, Freedman (1958:63–76) 618 423 578 179 points out that on the mainland large *tsu* holdings have often been controlled by the wealthier members of the group, which sometimes results in conflict rather than unity. But again, as Hsu (1949:129–130, note) points out for West Town and other places, such a lack of significant *tsu* corporate land is very common.

618 474 Because Hsin Hsing village *tsu* groups are relatively small and generally not prosperous, they are limited in their ability to meet all the economic needs of their members or to fulfill the social needs of all the different personality types of the group. The small size of these *tsu* and other patrilineal kinship groups as well as the personality differences between some *ch'in tsu* relatives make it desirable for the cooperative ownership of machines and also cooperative work efforts to extend to non-kin friends and neighbors in the village if work is to be done effectively.

618 857 572 Even a member of a *tsu* group frequently forms close friendships from childhood on with non-*tsu* fellow villagers. For example, friendships through age groups of children and young people are quite common in Hsin Hsing. Children's play groups to a great extent are composed of children of the same sex and age. Because they necessarily live near each other, they are therefore most often relatives. In addition, however, they frequently include children who are neighbors but not kin-related and, as the age of the group increases, also non-kin children who come from other parts of the village. The latter may be schoolmates whose friendships become very deep and last into adulthood.

573 Some of the groups of boys who have been close friends since childhood become sworn brothers (*chieh pai hsiung ti*) in their late teens or early twenties. In doing so, such boys—usually in groups of about five to ten—make an informal pact which is often celebrated by a dinner. In their organization as sworn brothers they agree to help each other, cooperate in many of the ordinary chores of life, and aid each other in any emergency. There are also certain occasions, such as the birth of a child or the death of a parent, when the sworn brothers band together to render assistance above and beyond that expected of ordinary villagers. The membership of such a group for the most part crosses kinship lines, since as some sworn brothers once observed, [618] "There is no point in *tsu* relatives becoming sworn brothers."

571 621 All of these friendships and special relationships, if continued into

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612 666 with a large circle of loyal *ch'in ch'i* campaigners tends to win added personal respect in the area as a result, and when a man does not support his *ch'in ch'i* in an election, it is likely to prove embarrassing to both the candidate and his relatives. The recent importance of elections in Taiwan has unquestionably added to the cementing of good *ch'in ch'i* relationships.

612 666 653 474 It is not only the official governmental elections which depend heavily on *ch'in ch'i* relationships. There are other elections in the local area which are important to the villagers and in which the candidates again often depend heavily on their relatives. Local nongovernmental offices like those in the Water Conservation Association are extremely important to the area. This association has a great deal of control in the building and repairing of irrigation works and in generally controlling the flow of water to the rice paddies. There are also important elected officials in the district Farmers' Association, and *ch'in ch'i* play an important supporting role in the campaigns for these positions.

612 618 666 The support by people for their *ch'in ch'i* candidates for various offices is, of course, not based solely on loyalty to one's relatives. Like all *ch'in ch'i* relationships, these too are expected to be reciprocal. When a village or small group of neighboring villages has problems such as a court case or repair of a faulty irrigation system or a regularly flooded road, the suggestion is frequently made to send a certain villager to ask the aid of his *ch'in ch'i* who happens to hold some office, however minor, in which he could conceivably exert some influence on the government or private agency. Well-placed *ch'in ch'i* can be of great help if there is good *kan-ch'ing* and a feeling of obligation exists. Of course, a *tsu* relative in an official position is even more desirable, but in an area of small kinship groups one's *ch'in ch'i* may tend to outnumber one's patrilineal relatives, extend into a wider geographical area, and so offer greater possibility for aid. Even when a *tsu* member runs for public office in the local area he can ask and expect each of his many *tsu* relatives to solicit aid from *ch'in ch'i*. Although few villagers are actually involved in elections, the *ch'in ch'i* relationships which may be activated in behalf of a candidate are many and far-reaching.

628 612 The matrilateral and affinal relationships which have been described for Hsin Hsing village are not unique to particular families but are general throughout the village. And since such relationships are reciprocal, the same *ch'in ch'i* relationships described for Hsin Hsing village would tend to exist in at least as many villages in which Hsin Hsing people have contacts through marriage and adoption. The extravillage *ch'in ch'i* relationships thus tend to give the villager an additional source of security which can supplement what he derives from his intravillage relationships. Although they are not institution-

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boring village of Ta Yu. The reason for this was that Li Fan, the Hsin Hsing man, had taken water from a public irrigation ditch which was at the time considered to be carrying privately owned rather than public water. The men from Ta Yu claimed that the water which Li Fan had taken was from the cooperative pumping station of which he was not a member. As they were beating him senseless with a metal hoe, his father tried to come to his aid and was also beaten.

The cooperative station, which pumps water from a nearby river, is located in the larger and wealthier neighboring village of Ta Yu. Most of its members are from Ta Yu village, although there are several members from other nearby villages, including a few from Hsin Hsing. Because the great majority of the pumping station members are Ta Yu villagers, these members have the controlling hand. Members from other villages have little if any voice in the making of cooperative policy. The cooperative's large size caused the Ta Yu members to feel that they had little to fear from outsiders. Apparently, the cooperative had unofficially agreed that any outsider caught taking the cooperative's water should be beaten as an example to others and that the association would fully back whoever did the beating in case any trouble should ensue. Before the beating of Li Fan and his father several other such incidents had gone unchallenged.

When Li Fan and his father were carried back from the fields, word quickly spread through Hsin Hsing village. The villagers were at once incensed and felt that those responsible for the brutality should be punished. The police were notified at once, and a doctor was called to treat the men's severe wounds. But until the doctor or police arrived, I was called in to administer first aid—mainly to stop the bleeding—and also to photograph Li Fan in his beaten condition.

The two police officers who soon came on their bicycles from the local police station were also angry at this new violence and recorded the stories of the two victims and the witnesses. Later, however, when an attempt was made to arrest the two Ta Yu villagers, they insisted that they had not started the fight, had only fought back in self-defense, and in fact had themselves been beaten by Li Fan and his father. This, under the law, meant that the accused would not necessarily be held by the police, especially since a wealthy and influential man in the area who was a friend of the Ta Yu pumping station cooperative had acted as guarantor for the two men. The men were therefore released and immediately pressed counter charges against Li and his father with the greatest haste and efficiency. The wealthy Ta Yu landlord and other leaders who were important persons in the cooperative as well as influential in the area and the local office of the government district knew how to handle such matters. And although the policemen themselves saw that the two Ta Ya men were not hurt in the fight, the two men were nevertheless able to purchase false

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affidavits of injury from a notorious doctor in a nearby market town.

Meanwhile, the Hsin Hsing villagers faced problems. They did not have anyone who could help write up the accurately detailed letter of accusation required under Chinese law. When they finally found someone to write the letter, it was submitted through the local police and had to go through a long series of channels before it finally reached the courts.

Several days went by and nothing seemed to happen in the case. When the Hsin Hsing villagers—mainly the few relatives and close friends of Li Fan and his father—went to ask the police what was happening, they were told that such things take time and that it would perhaps be better if they tried to settle the case with the Ta Yu villagers through mediation.

About this time, the Ta Yu villagers who were in the pumping station cooperative and who represented the two assailants made overtures to mediate. The reason they offered was that since both sides were hurt in the fight, they should forget the whole matter instead of pressing further and going to court. To this suggestion there was, of course, no agreement.

The Hsin Hsing villagers were in an awkward position. Although most of them would have liked to help Li Fan and his father win satisfaction and compensation for their injuries and to teach their assailants a lesson, they could do little. One of the main problems was that they had no one who would or could act as their leader. They were an unorganized group, and did not know what to do or how to go about handling the case. This was unlike the men from Ta Yu, who not only had a large powerful pumping station organization to support them, but also had the wealthy and influential village landlord who was a key figure in the cooperative and an influential and powerful man in the area to act in their behalf. Hsin Hsing village no longer has capable and interested village landlords who can lead them in times of trouble. As mentioned in Chapter 4, this may well be a general problem in villages where land reform has at least indirectly caused the downfall in wealth and prestige and especially the community interest of many of the former landlords.

Had Hsin Hsing been a single *tsu* village, Li Fan and his father as part of such a *tsu* might have received more active support from the village as a whole. A *tsu* village's organization and leadership, which grow out of family relationships, would undoubtedly have been much more centrally structured than this small multi-*tsu* village with its highly devisive units. To make the matter even worse, Li Fan and his father are from one of the smallest family groups, which made it all the more difficult for the village to marshal and organize its leadership, since there is no formal organization to handle such matters.

Another problem was that many of the villagers who were at first

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associations with their fellow villagers but they seem also to divorce themselves from the village itself. As they progress in their schooling, they become more and more antagonistic toward many of the village traditions, particularly those with a magical or religious basis. They have learned to regard them as superstition, and feel they are unworthy of their participation. Often, at religious and magical rituals in the village the middle school students, sometimes accompanied by their classmates from other places, can be seen on the sidelines laughing at the "superstition and backwardness" of the participating villagers. This attitude is in part fostered by what they are taught first in the elementary schools, then in the middle schools, and reinforced by their many new contacts with people and ideas from urban centers.

The village seldom has the opportunity to learn new ideas and ways of doing things from these students. Even if some of the students happen to be willing to share their knowledge, the other students' obvious snobbishness and lack of interest hinders the receptivity of the nonscholars to anything the students may propose. Consequently, the advanced education of some of their number produces few direct benefits for the village.

There are also educational offerings in the area which are nonofficial and informal. Among these are sewing classes, either private or offered by the local Farmers' Association for members' daughters. The private schools charge tuition, but the Farmers' Association classes are free. The Farmers' Association also holds classes in farming techniques for village boys. Boys may also be apprenticed to a craftsman for training. Since the practice is not too common in Hsin Hsing village, the few apprentices in the village have been boys of poor and almost landless families. One village boy was apprenticed by his father to a carpenter in Lukang and another to a carpenter in Taipei. Sometimes, village boys or girls are apprenticed to craft shops in Taipei.

ADOLESCENCE

When a boy reaches sixteen[2] an elaborate religious festival marking his transition from child to adult may be held in his honor. This may be done if the boy had been ill as a child and his family in asking the god for help had promised to perform such a ritual or if his family can afford it or wishes to display their economic ability to do so. If the boy had been sickly, thanks are given to the gods at the festival, especially to T'ien Kung (the highest of all gods) for bringing the boy to this stage of development, and requests are made for further help. When such a festival is held, a *tao shih*—a Taoist priest—is called to the village to officiate. (The ritual is similar to the one held at the time of a marriage, which is described in that section of this chapter.)

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since most often neither their own *tsu* nor family groupings are large enough in numbers to offer sufficient possibilities for relationships. As I have indicated throughout the book, although *tsu* and kinship is the most important single basis for relationships with others, Hsin Hsing villagers are far from being tied to one another exclusively on the basis of kinship or *tsu* relationship.

Hsin Hsing has many formal and informal "social associations," activities and relationship groupings whose membership roles cross kinship lines. We have seen this in groups of villagers based on membership in a particular irrigation system or pumping station association, exchange labor groups, cooperating groups in vegetable marketing, loan associations, father-mother burial associations, sworn-brother age groups, and so on. Each non-kinship based formal or informal activity and association that a villager participates in and depends on performs an important function and fulfills a need. By doing this, such diversified non-kin relationships also tend somewhat to interfere with and weaken *tsu* organization by impairing its solidarity and therefore its ability to achieve security for its members. By doing what the kinship organizations cannot do, such associations expose the inherent weakness of the kinship-based organizations.

At the same time, the non-kinship based organizations have inherent weaknesses of which the villagers are aware. Each has a different composition of members, and the villager does not share membership in all the different associations with a single uniform grouping of fellow villagers. The *tsu* or smaller patrilineal kin group thus remains the primary basis for the most continuous and stable long-term relationships; such relationships are institutionalized and, unlike relationships with fellow villagers or outsiders, do not change from time to time. The villager therefore appreciates the importance of his kinship group and is desirous of maintaining his close relationship to it. But he also appreciates the necessity of establishing supportive socioeconomic relationships beyond the *tsu* and village, and it is these kinds of relationships which appear to be increasing in both frequency and importance and to be fostering a decline in identification with the village as a community.

Such a decline means that villagers today find it increasingly difficult to cooperate for mutual aid, even when it is still necessary. It is even questioned whether aid should be offered to a non-*tsu* fellow villager in times of emergency, such as when problems arise with other villages. The case of Li Fan discussed in Chapter 6 shows that the villagers now often have little basis for cooperation and mutual aid and, in addition, are today faced with a conflict of loyalties—a waning loyalty to their fellow villagers and, at the same time, at least a continuing and perhaps even growing loyalty to people in other vil-

from the other; or if the farmers' association small unit head is from one faction, the vice head is from the other.

Many of the men but only a few women learned some Japanese and several became quite fluent. A Japanese school was established in Pouti near the police station and a small percentage of the villagers, primarily male, were permitted to attend. It appears that although there were increases as time passed, total attendance never exceeded fifty per cent of those in the requisite age groups. Secretly and illegally, a Chinese school was operated in the village but seldom did more than 15 students attend regularly.

Economically, there were many improvements. The narrow path to Hsin Tien soon became a one lane dirt road. Coal mines were started in the immediate area and a very narrow gauge railroad was built from the mines into Hsin Tien just before World War I. Both road and railroad improved communication with Hsin Tien. Tea plantations, common in Northern Taiwan, were introduced to Talei about the time the railroad was built. Citrus orchards started to replace tea during World War II. Improved seed varieties, fertilizer, insecticide, and farming techniques increased agricultural income a great deal. The Japanese introduced farming cooperatives in the nineteen twenties which increased the flow of information to the village.

186 The Taiwanese seemingly equate some Mainlanders
648 with villagers in Fukien, although as previously suggested, the Mainlanders were not representative of rural Fukien. This mistaken identity helps support the villagers' belief that the Taiwanese are now significantly different from the Fukienese still in China. It would seem that the real differences are probably not great. That is, the differences in cultural behavior of the people of Taiwan as compared with those from Fukien was probably no greater than the differences between the latter and the people from Kansu or Hunan. The differences between urban and rural types are probably considerable in any location. However, for predicting behavior, particularly motivated behavior, subjective reality may be more important than objective reality. Taiwanese and Mainlander are self-identified as different groups. Each is an "in group" and treats the other as an "out group." The Taiwanese generally feel that the present government is controlled by "outsiders."

621 Sanlei village as well as the entire li has prospered during the last twenty years subsequent to the re-
[433] turn of control to the Chinese. Agricultural techniques have continued to progress, and production is at its
[474] highest levels in history. The farmers' association has
[242] been most active in introducing improved techniques and providing supplies such as insecticides, new seeds, and fertilizer.

342 in winter.

351 Most of the dwellings of farmers have a pounded
243 earth courtyard for drying rice and as a place to work.
414 Recently, the farmers' association has provided half the cement necessary to cover the courtyard and many villagers have taken advantage of the offer, the first in 1961. Borrowing the use of a cemented courtyard is now quite
343 common. Farm outbuildings such as pig pens are extremely crude with only partial walls and a thatch roof.

342 A dwelling typically has a regular sequence of development. The first step is a rectangle 15 feet deep and 20 or more feet wide. The main room will be the kung t'ing which is a combination of sitting, dining, ancestral worship, and general main room in the house. The usual room dimensions are a 15 foot depth and a width of 10 or 15 feet. Extended out on either side are other rooms, each 10 or 15 feet wide. Such rooms will be added as needed until the building is three or five rooms long with the kung t'ing in the center accessed through a central door. One of the rooms is a kitchen but if there are only two rooms, the kitchen may be a temporary attached leanto.

787 It is best to have a geomancer orient the house for good luck (see Chapter VII). Many people skip this step by copying the orientation of nearby houses although this is contrary to the theory of geomancy (ti-li or feng-shui).

243 hand is in bunches of 4 to 7 rice seedlings, 6 to 7 inches
462 apart with one large bunch placed in a corner of the field for use in a second transplanting to replace thinned-out spots in the field. Men are expected to be able to maintain the rows and spacing without the wooden guides needed by women. A woman occasionally transplants rice in her
[463] [465] own family fields but it is comparatively rare for women to be hired for transplanting. When a woman is hired for transplanting or harvesting, she earns a regular women's wage (discussed later) but does receive the previously
[851] mentioned five-meal bonus. A young boy is a normal part of each transplanting crew with the responsibility of running errands, bringing food and water, and supplying the men with seedlings.

243 There are normally two weedings and occasionally a third; the first is 20-25 days after transplanting and the second and third, 10-15 days after a previous weeding.
242 Chemical fertilizer is applied before weeding. Weeding is
243 performed on hands and knees. Once more, women seldom
[462] participate in rice-field activities outside their own
[474] family fields and that too is infrequent. There may be an occasional second application of fertilizer which is available from the farmers' association for cash or for rice. It is slightly cheaper in town for cash but no credit facilities are available. The fields will be sprayed with insecticide once or twice.

later, all but the main bud are trimmed off. Activities during the balance of the year include monthly applications of fertilizer and insecticide and bimonthly weeding. In November, the beds are prepared with the holes four to six yards apart and the final transplanting is accomplished within ten days of the winter solstice. Aside from extra watering the first few weeks after transplanting to supplement the rain, the routine of care remains the same throughout the life of the tree. The ground is cultivated once per year and both weeded and fertilized twice each year in February and August. Insect control is monthly in the warm weather as needed but rarely less than three times a year.

Trees start bearing fruit the seventh year. The major harvesting months are in November, December, and January, starting when tea harvesting slackens and ending about the time when the paddy fields should be prepared. The 7th year the 60 trees which fill one chia of land will produce about 500 chin of oranges and the 8th, 2000 chin. Full mature production commences the ninth or tenth year and dependent on insects, disease, and weather, production will range from 8,000 to 12,000 chin per chia. Diseases and insects have only become problems since the increased amounts of land have been devoted to oranges. The farmers' association provides expert advice in dealing with problems as they arise, but officials in the Hsin Tien office

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474 are not sure that they can control all potential problems.

Almost all the oranges not used in home consumption
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474 are sold through the Fruit Cooperative Association in Pan Chiao. They may be delivered to a warehouse there or to one in Taipei. All orange growers belong to the cooperative and the li has three representatives on its board of
435 control. The price received is dependent on grade (size) and quality and ranges from $2.50 to $4.00 per chin with an average of $3.00.

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433 As can be seen by the above time sequence, it takes a considerable investment before any return is achieved. Land must be purchased and taxes paid each year for eight years or rent must be paid for the same period without income. At the same time, substantial labor inputs are required for transplanting, weeding, fertilizing, and insect control and cost of insecticide and fertilizer is not inconsequential. Much of the savings from the increased yields for other crops and from non-farm employment is being devoted to orchard development with high returns expected, just around the corner.

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462 Orange orchards are reasonably new and a firm tradition with regard to the division of labor has not yet crystallized as it has for most other village tasks. Transplanting and fertilizing is strictly a male operation as is all skilled farming. Although males and females alike weed and pick oranges, females are beginning to

consulted with extension agents and the farmers' association. Other villagers are watching closely.

The village is close to Taipei and seemingly could share in the truck garden market, but no village in the immediate area other than one village, about two miles distant, participates. The latter was chosen by the farmers' association in Hsin Tien as a model village for vegetable production. After seeds, assistance, and guidance were provided by three technological experts who were assigned nearly full-time, the returns have been very high. The experts have withdrawn except for one who returns periodically for consultation as the innovated system is now self-generating. That is, it appears the village will continue to raise vegetables for the market without further stimulation.

Other villages have observed the techniques of growing and marketing vegetables but there has yet been little diffusion. The techniques are considered complex, the dangers of market fluctuation high, and the experience regarding potential damages by insect and weather nonexistent. There is interest however and the passage of time is likely to result in copying.

As can be seen in the detailed descriptions provided for growing other crops, farm technology is highly complex and villagers regard a skilled farmer as a master of a trade. Although anyone can do some farming tasks,

considered acceptable by rural people. It is said that city people prefer a pig of 160 chin or less because they prefer less fat.

Two years ago the slaughtering tax was only $280.00. Under the Japanese, a similar slaughtering permit was required but the tax then represented less than 10% of the pig's value whereas now it is close to 20%. In any case, the high tax plus the high cost of the bean cakes has created the belief that no one can make a profit raising pigs although the government, through the farmers' association, is encouraging farmers to raise pigs. The village Small Unit Head and Vice Unit Head of the association have attended several meetings concerned with encouraging hog production. Although they have passed out much literature, they have had little success in promoting pig production. No small part of their failure is because they too believe that there is little profit in pigs although in order to set an example, both are raising more pigs than the average villager. Pigs seem more valuable for their manure in making compost than for meat. Only farmers who have ready sources of pig feed and a need for fertilizer raise pigs. There is one major exception, a family planning a wedding may raise a pig for the feast. Although the amount saved is not much, the cost goes out a little at a time rather than a big cash expenditure at the time of the wedding. Only one Sanlei man presently is trying to raise pigs for a profit.

651 allowances are made for those who have had a heavy recent
653 expense such as a wedding. The range of assessments was
626 from $2.00 to $100.00.

The lin chang collected the money and gave it to the mayor to deliver to the government. This was all done informally, i.e., no legal pressure could be brought on an individual who refused to contribute. There would be community pressure for by refusing to cooperate a man would be failing his neighbors. In a close-knit community, one never knows when cooperation is needed; a poor man needs employment, and a rich man must hire laborers and at critical periods, the area has a slight to severe labor shortage.

746 Some social welfare support trickles into the com-
[797] munity from outside through various governmental levels and even through missionary groups which distribute United States government surplus. Other welfare is on the basis of kinship. However, the local community does assume limited responsibility for its own indigent on a community basis as previously described. There is a proverb, "A good neighbor may be more important than a distant relative" (see Glossary C).

The Farmers' Association

494 The Farmers' Association is a quasi-governmental
241 unit which operates as an important link between farmers

474 241 and the government. Sanlei villagers feel the Farmers' Association is their own organization, not a mere branch of governmental bureaucracy. In this regard, it is perceived as a successor to the "Farmers' Associations" of the 1920's (locally developed organizations) which were suppressed by the Japanese rather than the "Associations of Agriculture" which were created as official organs of the Japanese Government (Bessac, 1965:21).

Farmers' Associations fulfill a number of different functions. They are a farm credit service with deposit and loan facilities and capital accumulation in the Hsin Tien association is quite large. They provide economic services such as the sale of bean cake, insecticides, farm implements, and fertilizer, and act as a collection agency for taxes in kind and for the sale of rice. They also provide extension services including study groups, home improvement clubs, and 4-H clubs and sponsor model communities and model farms such as that described for the nearby vegetable gardening village. They instruct in new agricultural and sanitation techniques. The one in Hsin Tien helps provide market information for tea growers and recently, developed a form of livestock insurance. Some services are profitable and some lose money such as the necessary activities connected with the responsibility for communicating government directives to farmers. In general, all the activities may be subsumed under general

4:Barnett E-4.5 (1965-1967) 1970 ADS Taiwan Hokkien ADS
Sanlei Ts'un

474 241 goals of increasing agricultural production and improving rural life.

474 Talei Li has its own small unit, a local branch of the Farmers' Association. This unit has an elected "Small Unit Head" from T'oulei and "Vice Small Unit Head" from Sanlei. These two leaders are a nexus between the community and the association. Since they receive no compensation other than recognition, an occasional free dinner, and a magazine subscription, they feel the office is nearly worthless, without money or power. For example, they are required to carry out policy with which they may personally disagree, i.e., currently they are supposed to be encouraging hog production although both they and the average farmer believe that raising hogs is unprofitable.

There are 97 regular members of the Farmers' Association in Talei Li plus 10 associate members. Forty of the members live in Sanlei, indicative of that village's great emphasis on agriculture. Talei Li belongs to the Hsin Tien Farmers' Association which has a total membership of over 1,000. Although each local Farmers' Association is subject to government regulations and directives, there is great latitude for local independence and democratic control. The Association is run by a Board (one elected representative from each li), an Assembly (representatives elected from each li dependent on size of membership), a Watch-Dog Committee (auditing supervisors

474 elected by the Assembly), and a General Manager hired by the elected officials. The general manner of operation is not unlike that of American communities with a council and a "City Manager" system.

Farmers' Association Factions

474 665 Competition for the Farmers' Association General Manager's job is very keen. There are two major factions in the Hsin Tien Farmers' Association which are regionally based in one sense but do carry different policy emphases.

The faction to which Sanlei belongs is called the "Inside the Mountain" group. Its members live in the more remote areas around Hsin Tien and appear to be less urban and more traditional in outlook. They generally feel the Farmers' Association should devote itself solely to direct agricultural activities and to maximizing high dividends.

The other faction is called the "Outside the Mountain" group and contains members who are generally more urbanized and progressive and who favor the recent trend to more extension work by the Farmers' Association and the like.

Individual members belong to units which elect officials to the overall Hsin Tien Association. Although the correspondence between the region and the factional affiliation are not absolute, there is a strong correlation. As the description of the two Farmers' Association factions suggests, they are related ideologically to the

factions previously described within Talei Li. Talei Li is strongly in the camp of the "Inside the Mountain" faction which is similar to the li "traditional" faction. Although the factions are reasonably balanced overall within the li, the "traditional" faction is in overwhelming control of the more restricted membership of the Farmers' Association.

Currently there are 21 members of the association board, 13 from the "Outside the Mountain" faction. Ten years ago, when there were fewer li represented in the association, there were 15 board members, 8 from the "Inside the Mountain" faction and 7 from the other. At that time, Talei Li was in the majority faction but today, Talei is in the minority faction for the recently added li have almost all become members of the faction which was previously a minority. Farmers' Associations have been enlarging their memberships vigorously and according to Sanlei villagers, too broadly interpreting which men are farmers. It did seem to me that some members I met in Hsin Tien were farmers in name only. In any case, the new members seem to favor many policies which are not of immediate direct profit to farmers.

The election of the board member to a term of four years is hotly contested in Talei Li, even more so than the election of the mayor. The member receives an attendance fee of $40.00 for the meetings which average twice

• 474 666 per month. The present board member is from Sanlei and is serving his second term. He has been influential in various kinds of agricultural committees since he was a young man who was once chosen as a farm youth representative to visit Japan and honor the emperor. Six years ago, he defeated the incumbent, the important Erhlei man who was the son of the former bandit chief in a very close election. Two years ago, he badly beat the "progressive" faction member who had been the previous mayor, also from Erhlei. The incumbent's residence in Sanlei and identification with Sanlei's faction helped his campaign. Also, the Farmers' Association members tend to be engaged in agriculture and are more traditional in orientation. The "progressives" are much more influential among li residents in general than among those who are primarily farmers.

There are two additional elected representatives: one is from Sanlei and the other from Erhlei; the latter is the badly-defeated candidate described above. Within the li, Sanlei's faction has an overwhelming majority in the Farmers' Association and could easily control the entire election process. The fact that an outsider holds office once more illustrates the previously introduced principle that there should be balance and harmony. Only the mayor said this explicitly but operations of the system, as demonstrated, strongly suggest it. Several men

474 claim that every conflict should be resolved and almost
666 everyone agrees that since there are two factions, each should be represented even if one does not have sufficient votes to insure election. This may be partially related to the old belief in consensus rather than majority rule.
558 Additionally, no one should lose "face," i.e., be too
621 embarrassed. The badly defeated man had lost face but
476 gained much of it back by being elected a representative.

Since the above value is important, let me illustrate it in another context. When money is collected for civic improvements or social affairs, some poor people pay nothing and some rich people pay more than their assessment. When names and contributions are posted on the temple, incorrect figures are listed so that everyone is indicated as donating something. Only the committee chairman or the li chang would know the truth about the whole community and the various lin chang or assistant committee chairmen would know the truth about their own neighborhoods. Thus, face can be saved by the poor although richer villagers are not earning deserved levels of prestige which are related to the size of the donation. Someone who did not pay an amount commensurate with the committee opinion would be so posted and thereby, lose face. The threat is so great that it has happened only once in Sanlei in the past twenty years.

183 The above discussion may falsely suggest an idyllic
496 view of life in Sanlei, all peace and harmony, whereas
621 actually, there are many violations of the underlying
626 principles such as have already been pointed out, i.e., the man who refused to accept a consensus, and others will be discussed later. The man who refused to contribute his proper share to the temple committee has a reputation for cheapness, has a little more difficulty hiring workers during the busy season (his bonus of a meal is considered likely to consist of poor and cheap food), and he was insulted in public by the gods at the last major celebration (see Chapter VII). The mayoral candidate who refused to cooperate with the general consensus was badly defeated for mayor and also for the next office for which he campaigned.

The Fruit Cooperative

• 474 Taiwan has six Fruit Cooperatives, primarily market-
245 ing organizations although minimal levels of guidance and
[177] assistance are also provided. These cooperatives are all continuations of Japanese-established organizations. Talei Li belongs to the Ch'i Chang branch, one of six branches in the Taipei Fruit Cooperative which specializes in citrus fruit.

As farmers in Talei Li have taken up citrus cultivation, they have regularly joined the association.

• 474 Currently, the 66 members, 31 from Sanlei, constitute an
245 all-time high reflecting the previously described change to citrus cultivation. Four representatives serving three-year terms represent Talei Li, one from T'oulei, one from Erhlei, and two from Sanlei, another equal balance of factions. These representatives meet with others in Ch'i Chang to elect 20 of their members to represent them at the Taipei (main) level. At the Taipei level, 111 representatives elect a 25 man board which selects the general manager.

The fruit cooperatives are much larger than farmers' associations, the election process is more indirect, and the organization is less responsive to its membership. However, its management has generally been excellent, distributed profits are good, and marketing is efficient. No Talei citrus farmer has failed to join the cooperative and each markets most of his crop through the association.

Education

872 Talei Li has its own six-year primary school located in Erhlei. Under Japanese rule, students walked to the Pouti school. In 1955, a branch of the Pouti school was established in the li, and in 1964, it was granted independence. Currently the school has a principal, twelve teachers, and a janitor. There is no clerk but one will be added when the school gets bigger. Two hundred Talei